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Guidance in the curriculum : some theories and practices.

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GUIDANCE IN THE CURRICULUM: SOME THEORIES AND PRACTICES

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by

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INTRODUCTION

The aim of this paper is to present evidence, both theoretical and practical, of how and to what extent a guidance person functions in the secondary school. How may he be most efficient in terms of his objectives? What is expected of him by teachers, parents, administrators, and, most important, by students?

The procedure will be to present a brief review of the aims of the curriculum and those of guidance with addendums by the writer. Then in following sections, methods of interviewing, techniques of group and individual counseling, aspects of psychological testing, as well as special emphasis on the University of Massachusetts Summer Counseling Program, are presented.

Research constitutes an important aspect of counseling. To develop this aspect, an item analysis of a test employed by the University of Massachusetts Summer Counseling Program is presented in detail. Also a correlational study of Kuder interest scores with academic scores is presented.

Readiness factors, motivation, and transfer of learning are considered within the realm of guidance. The

counselor, because of his psychological background, should be in a position to aid teachers and students in these areas. The writer attempts to answer such questions as: how and why should the counselor devote part of his time to the psychology of learning?

This broad approach necessitates a sampling of the entire field of guidance. However, because of special interest in the areas of interviewing, psychological testing, and research, these aspects will be developed to a greater extent than other areas. This is not to imply that such areas as community surveys, psychometrics in guidance, and formulating local norms, for example, are not important. The writer chooses to leave these aspects to more sophisticated counselors for the time being.

In the last analysis, all areas of guidance are in perspective when the counselor is of utmost assistance to his students in a particular situation. When this occurs, teachers, parents, and counselors are all a part of the counseling process in which the counselor is assigned the responsibility of leadership.

CHAPTER II

OBJECTIVES OF THE CURRICULUM

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OBJECTIVES OF THE CURRICULUM

"Recognizing the tension systems of youth as the foundation of the curriculum . . . ."[1] has been accepted by many educators as a sound framework on which a progressive and flexible curriculum may be based. B. Othanel Smith goes on to say:

> Only as the individual and his social group are caught in situations that stir fundamental moral ideas, can character be changed. Failure to take account of this fact is one of the weakest aspects of the prevailing educational program. The preoccupation of this program with facts and objectivity, information and erudation, renders current practices impotent in the modification of basic beliefs and ideas.[2]

Assuming that this statement is acceptable to all, the question then arises: who is to recognize and deal with these tensions in the modern secondary school? Obviously, everyone in the educational field has the responsibility to recognize the "tension systems of youth." Furthermore, he should act upon them to change the student--educating is changing. The writer believes the counselor to be one of

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[1]B. Othanel Smith, "Social Perspective as the Basic Orientation of the Curriculum." Supplementary Educational Monographs, eds. Virgil E. Herrick and Ralph Tyler (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950).

[2]Ibid., p. 13.

the individuals best qualified to take the lead in dealing with individual differences in the school environment because of his special training. Recognizing and dealing with individual differences is prerequisite to changing the individual in a positive manner. The counselor, in most cases, has had a more thorough grounding in psychology and, as a result, should have a greater degree of understanding of individuals through measurement techniques and interviewing. Many teachers are as capable as counselors in recognizing student "tensions," but they do not always have the time for those students who have special needs. These special needs may be of a psychological nature or simply of an informational nature dealing with career planning or course scheduling. It is in this over-all approach to the student that the counselor is needed in a school setting so that the teacher may meet his specific objectives of teaching. The ideal situation is to send the student to a class in a receptive mood. These objectives are attained in a curriculum where there is flexibility enough to meet the student's needs.

Ralph W. Tyler organizes his courses in the curriculum by answering the following questions:

> What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
> What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
> How can these educational experiences be organized?
> How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?[3]

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[3]Ralph W. Tyler, cited in "The Concept of Curriculum

These are sound questions to ask in initiating a study of the content of a curriculum. The next step is to ask: what are the purposes of education? Quickly, one sees an abyss into which pours countless plans, ideas as to what should constitute the curriculum. An inevitable Charybdis ensues and no one is certain of anything. The best approach appears to be to formulate a general educational hypothesis based on sound psychological principles and complement it with local needs. Robert M. Hutchins presents us with such a superstructure:

> If education is rightly understood, it will be understood as the cultivation of the intellect. The cultivation of the intellect is the same good for all men in all societies. It is, moreover, the good for which all other goods are only means. Material prosperity, peace and civil order, justice and moral virtues are means to the cultivation of the intellect.[4]

That the above statement is basic to educational objectives can easily be substantiated by examining curricula throughout the country. Thus, such courses as Problems of Democracy, United States History, and English are all thought of as vehicles by which the intellect may be cultivated. Whether they are or are not is, of course, another question.

"Local needs" may be exemplified by such courses as

Design" by Virgil E. Herrick. Chapter IV in Supplementary Educational Monographs, eds. Virgil E. Herrick and Ralph W. Tyler (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950).

[4]Robert M. Hutchins, The Higher Learning in America (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1936), p. 67.

agricultural and farm management in the rural schools and shop and technical in the city high schools. There is much overlap between geographical areas--shop courses are perhaps as necessary in the rural areas as in the cities.

Particularizing with regard to the objectives of education and the curriculum, Harold Alberty[5] reviews the many aspects of an ideal curriculum by developing several methods of approach including the core curriculum, the subject-centered curriculum, and developing resource units. He states, however, that studying the adolescent should be the basis for any curriculum development; he defines a curriculum as any organized activity which the school offers its students to meet their needs. J. Galen Saylor and William M. Alexander (Figure 1) present a methodology in developing a curriculum. Through seven steps they develop a program logically and empirically; that is, parents as well as teachers are involved in determining an adequate program.[6] Herrick (Figure 2) also outlines a complete plan based on the General College Design and intended to continue in the direction of the Thirty School Proposal. The Thirty School

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[5]Harold Alberty, Reorganizing the High School Curriculum (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1953), p. 328.

[6]J. Galen Saylor and William M. Alexander, Curriculum Planning for Better Teaching and Learning (New York: Rinehart and Co., Inc., 1954), p. 400.

Fig. 1.--The logical order of steps in curriculum planning.

WHO	DOES	WHAT? (for example)
A planning group representing citizens, boards of education, professional people, parents, and pupils	I. Determines Curriculum Goals decides on major goals to be sought by the schools:	Understanding of the responsibility of American citizenship
The system planning group	II. Outlines Curriculum Designs develops the board framework of the curriculum:	To use subject type of design and to include certain required subjects in social studies
The system planning group	III. Defines the Scope of the Curriculum indicates major areas and problems of living around which instructional units may ultimately be organized in relation to I and II:	The problem of participation in voting and other civic processes
The system planning group	IV. Defines the Sequence of the Curriculum suggests levels at which emphasis may appropriately be given to each area or problem, or the aspects thereof:	For senior high school, voting in state, local, and national elections

Fig. 1 (Continued)

WHO	DOES	WHAT? (for example)
School planning groups	V. Plan Resource Units by levels or departments plan resource units for major areas or problems and aspects thereof:	A resource unit on "Voting"
Individual teachers	VI. Make Unit Plans make unit plans for each learning group:	A unit plan for an 11A American History class on "Voting in U.S. Presidential Elections"
The learning group	VII. Develops Learning Experiences plans and carries on learning experiences related to the unit plan, usually through units of work:	An experience in using voting machines in connection with the above-named unit or plan

Source: J. Galen Saylor and William M. Alexander, Curriculum Planning for Better Teaching and Learning (New York: Rinehart and Co., Inc., 1954), p. 400.

Fig. 2.--A proposed curriculum design.

Purposes to Be Achieved by Educational Program

Determined by analysis of
1. Society and its needs
2. The learner and his learning
3. Human knowledge

Levels of definition
1. Over-all objectives
2. Content area objectives
3. Specific instructional objectives

Determines the goals which provide direction, defines the breadth and provides the base for evaluation of the instructional program.

Beliefs about:

The development of children and youth.
The nature of effective learning.
Democracy and its processes.
The function of the school in the education of effective citizens.

Curriculum

Experiences children have in school: direction, balance, emphasis.
These experiences also have a subject matter and a process.

Nature of Organization and Resources:

Class and school organization.
Pupil, teacher, principal, parent resources and relationships.
Promotion, grouping, and classification procedures.
Instructional and material resources of school and community.

Centers for Selecting and Organizing Learning Experiences

Subject | Broad Field | Area of Living | The Needs of Children

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Adapted from Virgil E. Herrick, "The Concept of Curriculum Design," Chapter IV in Supplementary Educational Monographs, eds. Virgil E. Herrick and Ralph W. Tyler (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950).

experiment[7] arranges subject matter, methods and organization, objectives and evaluation in a manner complementing each area. For example, the proper use of English becomes an objective of the Social Study class--students are ranked not only on content of examinations but also on presentation.

Methods of implementing these educational objectives as pertaining to guidance will be synthesized later; suffice it to say, for the present, that the school should base its program on the needs of the student by:

1. Orienting the curriculum to the present.
2. Emphasizing collective social goals.
3. Emphasizing the rules by which man lives.
4. Emphasizing learning situations calling for moral commitments.
5. Employing knowledge of groups and individuals.
6. Emphasizing discipline in intellectual methods and social techniques.
7. Encouraging techniques which will sustain the new personalities.
8. Providing methods for specialization in preparation for an occupation.

Much discussion may be centered on any one of these

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[7]H. H. Giles, S. P. McCutches, and A. N. Zachiel, "Exploring the Curriculum: The work of the Thirty Schools," Adventure in American Education, Vol. II (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952).

points. For example, one may ask: how does the teacher encourage and develop techniques which will sustain the new personalities? Allowing certain freedom of expression in the classroom situation is certainly a good start. Encouraging the student to express his particular views in his own way verbally, as well as on paper, is also conducive to personality development. Too often students are so saddled with the formality of expression as to stifle the desire to say anything. The writer once heard a graduating senior deliver an address which left a profound impression on teachers as well as on students, primarily because of the sincerity of the student delivering it. The address was entitled "Individualism" and parts are presented here to indicate the importance of encouraging the "new personalities."

> . . . . This is our rightful heritage, yet we choose to shun it. Today, the teen-agers, if we must stereotype them, have instigated one of the major problems with which our government and people must contend. Perhaps it doesn't seem essential that youth be aware of the importance of individualism. Nevertheless, their very unawareness is at the apex of their tendency to conform. Many of the evils which have been attributed to the lack of morality stem from this fear that teen-agers have of being different. There are other unexplained reasons for their conformism but the problem is the cure! And the cure is the realization of the need of that person to be himself.
>
> These teen-agers may never realize after they grow older that the principles of conformism never left them. They may adhere to the old habit of "following the crowd" throughout life. Will they say, "What I must do is all that concerns me, not what people think?" as Emerson did in his essay. How can one, in passing through this life leave "footprints in the sands of time" if each feeble foot is planted squarely in someone else's track?
>
> If the subject is thought upon, it seems that the human race is grouped into two factions: conformists and

non-conformists, or that's about what it amounts to. However, to do just the opposite of what everyone else is doing for the sake of being different would still not be using the mind for the things which would apt to be most beneficial. Therefore, to become a non-conformist purely to escape being a conformist is even greater folly.

In the ultimate, concerning teen-agers, to help them begin lives useful to themselves and their government, they must realize and accept the fact that they are individuals. Then comes the question, if everyone stands under his own little portal of individuality and prepares to fight anyone who declares a discrepancy in his thinking, isn't it going to impose a much greater problem to govern him and all of his neighbors bound by individualism?

Perhaps a touch of self-reliance can come in here, for if a person maintains the independence of action and thinking that he should, then the need for greater government will be decreased. . . . . Up there watching over us are the laws and the big government. Down here are the people, milling about in perplexity, hoping that "big daddy" will see to it that we are kept . . . safe.

Individualism can do much for us today. With the standards for progress which we have set and a personal understanding of how to use it, we can point these things toward the most important development project in the world: the development of the human mind and body.[8]

May we not take this as a sort of plea on the part of youth and develop a curriculum in such a manner as suggested by Robert H. Mathewson[9] as well as by William M. Alexander.[10] Both adhere to ideas which promote the development of individualism. Only as the curriculum is developed as a result of intensive guidance by administrators, teachers, and counselors will we be able to provide our youth a good measure

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[8]Used with permission of the author.

[9]Robert H. Mathewson, Guidance Policy and Practices (rev. ed.; New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955).

[10]William M. Alexander, "The Role of Leadership in Curriculum Planning," Supplementary Educational Monographs No. 71 (March, 1950).

of self-development. And self-development is the end aim of education. Only as this individualism is encouraged may we expect a society truly capable of democracy. While guarding against directing students to become extremes for the sake of being different, we must encourage them to think for themselves in making decisions.

CHAPTER III

OBJECTIVES OF GUIDANCE

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Basically, the objectives of guidance are as fundamental as those of education itself--guidance is education. The nature of man and his world has come under study by at least one guidance author. James F. Moynihan[11] treats guidance in a more philosophical approach in saying that " . . . man is both a part of nature and understandable and measurable in a scientific sense, and 'out of nature' in a materialistic sense in that he is also an independent spiritual being." There is an increasing concern by guidance counselors with ethical and religious values which heretofore have not been touched by counselors. Melvine D. Hardee[12] points to this direction by indicating that in many instances the home is not always capable of handling religious and moral questions.

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[11]James F. Moynihan, "The Philosophical Aspects of Guidance." Chapter III in Review of Educational Research. Vol. XXVII, No. 2, American Educational Research Association (April, 1957).

[12]Melvine D. Hardee, "Moral Guidance: Our Responsibility," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 31 (April, 1957), 220-23.

Carl R. Rogers[13] also writes of guidance at the deeper level of man's nature in a sort of "Rousseaurian" approach. He mentions the complexities of life and the difficulties which face students today.

John M. Brewer[14] reviews the history of guidance to 1930 and points to the fact that guidance has been changing steadily from the vocational approach to an all-embracing adjustment function. The original vocational approach dates to Parsons' Boston Vocational Bureau started at the turn of the century. The aim was placement in career position.

Generally speaking, it would be safe to say that guidance has continually changed in emphasis from the vocational approach to processes of personality adjustment, learning adjustment, as well as career planning. Donald E. Super[15] emphasizes a concern with attitudes, needs, motives, and their relationships to learning and adjustment. He draws away from the information-giving placement services which are to a great extent the approach expounded by E. G. Williamson.[16] Williamson is of the opinion that providing

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[13]Carl R. Rogers, "Some Direction and Points in Therapy," Psychotherapy: Theory and Research, Chapter III (New York: Ronald Press Co., 1953).

[14]John M. Brewer, Education as Guidance (New York: The MacMillan Co., 1935).

[15]Donald E. Super, "A Theory of Vocational Development," The American Psychologist, 8 (May, 1953), 185-90.

[16]E. G. Williamson, How to Counsel Students (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1939).

students with all types of personal and vocational information should be the main concern of counselors. The writer believes this important to a point, the point being the moment when the student does not understand the information given. This is particularly true with personal problems. Therefore, explaining the information becomes quite necessary at times.

The change or progression from the purely vocational approach to one of an all-embracing function by counselors is not quite so extreme as some writers would have us believe. While it is true that many counselors, such as Super, are drawing away from an over-emphasis on occupational planning, many counselors are, in fact, devoting too much time to career-planning and student-placement. The writer cannot accept this old approach. Have we not learned that, if the individual cannot decide for himself as to his life career, helping him simply to choose one will not solve his problem? The question is much more basic. Many students are not able to decide what they want to do even when amply tested by available means and "informed" of results. This is not to imply that the counselor should not provide printed material for the student, Career Day Conferences, and discuss related fields and qualifications needed for these positions. Beyond this, however, the student should be impressed with the idea that it is his responsibility to look for a job, not that of the counselor. The counselor should devote

most of his time to aiding the student with personal problems engendered by the home, the school, and anxieties arising out of seemingly unavoidable problems, such as deciding on a career.

A flexible curriculum should be the concern of counselors. Else how should the counselor fulfil his function of helping students select courses which will meet their needs. Beyond those courses which have universally been accepted as necessities, the curriculum should be loose enough to allow the student freedom of choice. The 1955 ASCD Yearbook emphasizes an obvious truism which is all too often forgotten:

> In the first place, the need for guidance derives from the existence of the individual differences. If all boys were equally alert and vigorous, equally intelligent, adjustable and interested in school learning, there would be no case for curriculum flexibility and far less for guidance . . . .[17]

Herman L. Frick[18] stresses a guidance program which will meet the needs of a society which places so much emphasis upon the maximum development of individuals. To accomplish this, methods of evaluating growth in the various aspects of living and suggestions of activities to promote their further growth should be one of the main concerns of

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[17]American Society for Curriculum Development, "Guidance in the Curriculum," ASCD Yearbook, Chapter II (National Education Association, 1955).

[18]Herman L. Frick, "Theories of General Education in the Curriculum," Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 71 (March, 1950).

the counselor. In short, helping the student to achieve "significant personalities" must be a goal of the counselor according to Frick. Alexander[19] lists three important factors in developing a curriculum:

1. Child growth and development
2. Social aims of education
3. Educational facilities and practices

The first should be the major preoccupation of the psychologically oriented personnel of the planning committee. This would involve the specialized training which counselors have or should have received; they are the logical individuals to turn to for assistance.

Mathewson[20] directs guidance goals to the student and his problems and in the student's language. Thus, the question: why do I have trouble getting along with other kids? might become an important topic for a group guidance class. This is the approach employed by many counselors in developing a guidance framework. It is a sort of "maturation" approach in which appropriate direction is given when requested. One cannot, of course, base an entire program on this approach. Students cannot anticipate all obstacles or facts which they have never heard; that is why they are in school.

In conclusion, the goals of guidance might be briefly

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[19]Alexander, op. cit. [20]Mathewson, op. cit.

stated in the following manner:

1. Provide such specialized counseling as necessary to help resolve physical, mental, emotional, and other problems of the student.

2. Provide data gathered from records of the community, the teacher, student records, and office records to formulate a well-oriented curriculum.

3. Provide students with essentials of vocational information.

Maintaining a cordial relationship with teachers, parents, and administrators will automatically follow the counselor who devotes his energies in doing his utmost for his students.

The next sections provide some means and methods of implementing these objectives from the guidance point of view. Included in the first part of the next section is a brief survey of some guidance services with comments by the writer. Then, in following sections, a review of psychological aspects of guidance is followed by discussions and findings of testing programs and interviewing techniques.

CHAPTER IV

IMPLEMENTING OBJECTIVES

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Overview

Under Recommendation I, "The Counseling System," James B. Conant[21] sets forth a major framework on which an efficient guidance program can operate. Such a program should start in the elementary grades and progress through graduation. He recommends one full-time counselor for each two-hundred-and-fifty to three hundred students. The counselor must be trained in the use of tests, counseling techniques, keep in touch with parents and pupils, and help direct the student's energy into the most beneficial channels. The writer subscribes to this recommendation in toto as a basic foundation on which a guidance program may be initiated. A counselor in this situation could deal effectively with most aspects of guidance including Career Days, guidance in groups, as well as testing and interviewing.

After reading a number of books and periodicals on the subject, the writer is of the opinion that many authors present programs designed to be "all things to all students"

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[21]James B. Conant, The American High School Today (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1959), p. 44.

but are, in fact, too cumbersome, too all-embracing to be efficient. One author even suggests that one of the counselor's duties is to orient students to the function and proper use of the cafeteria. It is the belief of the writer that counselors will be most efficient in situations where they perform work calling for their special training. Secretarial assignments as well as purely administrative functions should be minimized. It is with this belief in mind that the writer presents the most important aspects of guidance.

Henry B. McDaniel's[22] adjustive, distributive, and adaptive functions as a mean of meeting guidance objectives are excellent divisions in which to group guidance functions. Within the framework of these three aspects, the counselor is able to meet the needs of the student as they arise. The adaptive function includes orientation to school work and what is expected of students in their new surroundings. It also gives students perspectives of what to expect after graduation from high school. Thus, a student may be prepared for work or college. The distributive function includes the channeling of student energies into curricular as well as allied activities. Adaptive function is concerned with the student as an individual in his acclimating to his particular environment. McDaniel himself interprets the adjustive

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[22]Henry B. McDaniel, Guidance in the Modern School (New York: The Dryden Press, 1956), pp. 11-14.

functions primarily as a diagnostic and a "treatment" service. This may be accomplished through a consorted effort by teachers, parents, and the counselor in detecting some possible problems. The distributive function is thought of by McDaniel as "assisting each student to find the pattern of courses and activities uniquely appropriate to his character and his needs."[23] The adaptive function is based on the individual inventory and follow-up studies and serves as a source of factual information upon which a curriculum may be developed.

In an organized attempt to fulfil these functions, the counselor should have as his aim two basic goals:

1. The development of an adequate testing program.
2. The development of an adequate group and individual counseling program.

All other functions should be thought of as supplementary or as vehicles in developing these goals. The results or information derived from the testing program and group guidance and counseling services must, of course, be made available to parents, teachers, and students. Methods of relating test scores and information derived from interviews are discussed in the sections on testing and interviewing.

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[23] Ibid., p. 36.

Psychological Aspects of Guidance

One of the most important raison d'être of the counselor derives from his training in the psychological aspects of learning. The counselor must have such training as will place him between the teacher and the psychologist; that is, he should be a sort of liaison between the two. Testing, interviewing, guidance in groups would be of questionable use in the school situation if the counselor is not prepared to assist teachers with new ideas and relate new findings which will ultimately help the student learn more efficiently. That there are good and poor methods of teaching need not be defended here. The counselor should be alert to results of psychological experimentations and findings; it is for these reasons that this section is included.

As stated earlier by Smith[24] and Hutchins,[25] the ultimate end of education is the reaching for the "fuller life" through the process of reasoning in attempting to meet goals and to solve new problems. The following includes some findings in this transfer of knowledge which must take place if new situations and problems are to be met and dealt with effectively. These are basics to guidance.

Reasoning is defined by H. W. Bernard[26] as "the

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[24]Smith, op. cit. [25]Hutchins, op. cit.

[26]H. W. Bernard, Psychology of Learning and Teaching (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948), p. 343.

process involved in working towards the solution of a problem." There are three steps or elements:

1. Reasoning involves the delay of a response while the reasoner assembles, arranges and rearranges the information needed . . . .
2. Reasoning takes place only when one knows the facts that are pertinent to a solution unless trial and error is employed--not a product of reasoning.
3. A goal towards which reasoning is directed.

E. R. Hilgard[27] calls the arrival at the solution "insight."

One of the areas in which the counselor may be of great assistance to teachers deals with the acquiring of facts or information--memorization versus the understanding approach. The counselor should be cognizent, for example, of the results of the Ohio State University experiment.

This experiment, as reported by Ralph W. Tyler, indicates that "many students develop facilities in one type of mental process involved in a course without developing equal facility in other types of mental processes." These findings are in agreement with Thrustone's Multifactor theory of intelligence as well as with the Gestalt in dynamic approach as reported by E. Fromm.[29]

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[27]E. R. Hilgard, Theories of Learning (New York: D. Appleton Century-Crofts, Inc., 1948), p. 343.

[28]Ralph W. Tyler, "The Relation Between Recall and Higher Mental Processes," in C. H. Judd, Education as Cultivation of the Higher Mental Processes (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1936).

[29]E. Fromm and L. D. Hartman, Intelligence: A Dynamic Approach (Garden City: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1955), p. 49.

Tyler goes on to say that, from evidence of the study, the ability to recall factual information is a separate process from the ability to draw inferences. These facts are substantiated by Ralph C. Bedell and Edward B. Green[30] and by L. J. Cronbach.[31] Charles H. Judd[32] indicates that memorization is a "lower" mental process than the processes of inferring and generalizing.

Some individuals recall information more easily than others who are more capable in drawing inferences from this same material. The counselor, through testing, cumulative records, interviewing, and so forth, should be able to give some indication to teachers what students can or cannot do in the classroom. With this help from the counselor, teachers are better able to meet individual student needs.

In another study, Walter B. Kolesnik summarizes:

> In schools where obedience is stressed . . . pupils were more concerned with obtaining the right answer than with obtaining a sensible answer. Others who were urged to look for alternatives were for the most part more flexible in solving problems.[33]

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[30]Ralph C. Bedell and Edward B. Green in C. H. Judd, Education As Cultivation of the Higher Mental Processes (New York: The MacMillan Press, 1936), p. 17.

[31]L. J. Cronbach, Educational Psychology (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1954), pp. 248-275.

[32]Charles H. Judd, Education as Cultivation of the Higher Mental Processes (New York: The MacMillan Co., 1936).

[33]Walter B. Kolesnik, Mental Discipline in Modern Education (Madison: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1958).

Again, this would indicate that recall and inference are to a large degree dependent on methodology. Therefore, teachers should continually be reminded that memorization alone is nearly worthless; in fact, it may have adverse effects on learning.

Clearly, then, the counselor needs to know something about the major theories of learning as well as being familiar with child development. Hilgard[34] reviews major theories of learning including Classical Gestalt Theory, Thorndike's Contigguous Conditioning Theories, as well as Freud's Psychodynamics.

Arnold Gesell and Frances L. Ilg[35] in an interesting text on child development relate significant developments of youth up to the age of sixteen. Major and minor maturistic expressions are discussed for all these age groups--such factors as fear and physical aggressiveness to belief in deities are exemplified by typical findings of these two authors.

At this point it is well to note that the counselor is not and should not purport to be a child psychologist. In fact, he would be neglecting a good part of his functions if he were to attempt to help those students in need of

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[34]Hilgard, op. cit.

[35]Arnold Gesell and Frances L. Ilg, Child Development: An Introduction to the Study of Human Growth (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949).

professional care. He should have enough training to be able to detect those in need of special care and refer them to qualified specialists.

In conclusion, psychology plays an important role for the counselor; he must know how to deal with such factors as maturation, motivation, aggression, cognitive and conative dimensions of the interviewing relationship, emotional "tones" of the students as well as countless other facts gathered for the purpose of effecting change in the student. Furthermore, he must possess diplomacy in interactions with teachers if positive advancements are to be made in teaching methodology.

Cumulative Records

The cumulative record form is a developmental anecdotal type of report of an individual. The purpose of such a form in guidance is for ready and accurate evaluation at a given moment. As a result, it should include as much information as possible without becoming so cumbersome as to prohibit its intended purpose.

Organization, therefore, is the keyword in a well-developed record--how much can be included in a given space; how understandable will it be to future readers; and how important is the information being entered?--should be of prime concern to the counselor.

Mildred L. Fisher[36] in the 1955 ASCD Yearbook suggests a positive approach in reporting information rather than a negative one. The writer is of the opinion that objectivity should be stressed in entering information. The best method is for teachers to sign and date all entries, particularly those concerned with character evaluations. In this way final evaluations are made with reference to a particular teacher--in short, the original evaluator. Furthermore, examples of particular traits are more important than merely stating the traits.

One example of a comprehensive and well-planned cumulative form is one published by the state of Vermont for use in its school systems. The Vermont Educational Development Record is so designed that all noteworthy information may be entered from the first grade through graduation from high school. Scores of standardized tests covering all areas of testing, national and local norms, names of parents and siblings, and even the hobbies and interests of the entire family may be included.

The value of a well-designed form is not always immediate or solely for the benefit of the individual student. Curriculum studies may be based, in part at least, on what has happened to former students who were present at

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[36]Mildred L. Fisher, "The Cumulative Record as a Tool," Chapter VII in ASCD Yearbook, op. cit., pp. 174-190.

a time when a particular arrangement of courses was taught. Through follow-up information and cumulative record information, much data could be accumulated to evaluate student needs.

Research in Guidance

John W. Best[37] divides research into three main categories: (1) historical research; (2) descriptive research; and (3) experimental research. Under each section he explains purposes, methodology, and evaluates each method. In many instances all three categories are employed in a single research project.

The purpose of any scientific research project is to seek better understanding of something, to attempt to verify theories or beliefs, or to find a method of performance which will bring better results than presently employed systems. There are various motivational goals for research, the most important one perhaps being the financial benefits derived as a result of discovering a new production method or a new product. Large concerns spend much money to increase production or to discover new products in order to compete more effectively.

Research in guidance is thought of as the attempt by counselors to discover more efficient, dependable methods of

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37John W. Best, Research in Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959), p. 12.

evaluating student aptitudes, achievements, interests, and personal problems to effect solutions. Unfortunately, most researchers are interested in college-level studies and, as a result, secondary schools reap little benefit because in many instances findings do not apply at this "lower" level. Interest tests, for example, are much more reliable at the college level than at the secondary school level. Paradoxically, a greater percentage of college students have already decided on a career. More research at the secondary level might uncover better predictors of student interest where it would be more valuable.

The usual research approach is to compare empirically what has resulted as the consequence of certain actions. For example, research-oriented counselors are in constant search for the proper combination of tests which will yield the greatest percentage of accuracy over a period of years for the particular school in question. Research, therefore, involves follow-ups of students to compare actual achievement with predicted achievements. Just as the better teacher continually attempts to improve her teaching techniques, the counselor must also devote part of his time to evaluating his work.

Among the various types of descriptive and experimental research one may find the survey method, activity analysis, case studies, school surveys, classroom research, single individual or group method, and follow-up studies.

The writer is mainly interested in the experimental areas of research. In the following section the reader will note the process involved in item analysis, together with a survey and study of Kuder-inventoried interest patterns and scholastic achievement at the secondary school level.

Item Analysis.--One area in which a counselor may turn his energies is the development of psychological or standard test which will be shorter and simpler to administer and yet will retain or improve predictive ability. This process is called item analysis.

Two factors which must be taken into consideration in item analysis are reliability and validity. Will the new test measure the student equally well on subsequent administrations? and will the test consistently measure what it is supposed to measure? Much depends on the reliability and validity of the original test. But longitudinal and cross-sectional studies must be conducted to substantiate the value of a test.

The procedure involved in item analysis is quite simple but requires much paper work and time. An example of the procedure involved in item analysis is presented in the following paragraph.

Included in the University of Massachusetts Summer Advanced Placement Program currently is an abbreviation of a long test. The ultimate purpose is to shorten the time of administration to fifty minutes and the number of items

from one-hundred-and-five to fifty.

To accomplish this the seventy-five top and bottom scoring students of the class of 1963 (on the original test) were used as the referral groups. Item 3 (Figure 3) of the original test is included to clarify the procedure.

Fig. 3.--Item 3 of Original Test

Group	--Choices-- 1		2		3		4		5		Omit	
	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
High	15	20	12	16	20	27	18	24	0	-	10	13
Low	7	9	12	16	9	12	18	24	2	3	27	36

Note: A indicates number of responses
B indicates percentage of group

In this multiple choice item it will be noted that 15 top students (20 per cent) chose number 1 and 7 bottom students (9 per cent) also chose number 1. At a glance it is obvious that the most discriminatory choice is number 3; as a result, and because one of the five choices has discriminatory value, Item 3 was retained. Thus, the fifty items found to have the most discriminatory choices were included in the revised test. Admittedly it was very difficult to decide between some items. In some cases less discriminatory items were retained to equate samplings of the areas for which the test was constructed. Thus, the aim was to reduce each area covered by the test proportionately.

Upon careful consideration, it was decided that

"omits" were to be considered as "wrongs." Since omitted items give some indication of the degree of difficulty, the revised test was scrutinized to insure a proportionate number of difficult items versus easy items.

The revised test has yet to be verified. It cannot be assumed that the revised version will be as reliable as the original. Much study needs to be done over the years to evaluate the predictive value of the test. Local norms of the test itself, student standing in class, follow-up studies, and even student grades in high school all need to be taken into consideration in appraising the test.

The Kuder Preference Record--Vocational and Achievement at the Secondary School Level.--High school counselors always face the task of deciding what tests to include in a testing program. Expenditures, time, and ease of administration, as well as predictive value of tests, are important determining factors in test selection. Generally, longer "proven" tests are more reliable than short ones; but the counselor must often decide between one long test or several shorter ones which, in many cases, measure different aspects. The writer believes that item analysis can be useful to the counselor who seeks to measure every possible facet of his student. He may construct his own tests in which case the process of item analysis may be used to simplify and shorten measuring instruments.

Research need not be concerned only with item

analysis and psychometrics as such. Interesting and fruitful research may be conducted with regard to student interest areas and grades in subjects which approximate these areas. Are students who do well in typing interested in clerical careers? Is there any significant correlation between proficiency in subject matter and interest area? Many observers have opinions, but little convincing evidence has been found to substantiate the belief that the student who does well in the scientific areas will show a definite interest in that area. In the following section the writer reviews literature in the area of interest testing and high school achievement in an attempt to discover what has been found. At the end of the section a brief study is presented of eighteen Athol High School students with some correlations.

Donald Super[38] defines the word "interest" by dividing it into four major categories: expressions of interests, manifestations, tests, and inventoried interests. Expressed interests are no more than the verbalization of an interest in an object, activity, task, or occupation. This is what David Fryer[39] called a specific interest. Manifesting an interest is synonymous with participating in an activity. Tested interests, as differentiated from inventoried interests,

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[38]Donald Super, Appraising Vocational Fitness by Means of Psychological Tests (New York: Harper and Brothers, Inc., 1949), pp. 445-562.

[39]David Fryer, The Measurement of Interests in Relation to Human Adjustment (New York: Holt and Co., 1931).

are measured by objective tests. Conclusions are reached on the basis of results obtained on specific objective tests.

The assumptions underlying each of these classifications of interest do not fall within the scope of this paper and, as a result, only a superficial definition is presented. Inventoried interests, such as those in the Kuder Preference Record, are measured in such a manner as to relate likes, and dislikes, in everyday activities to norms of particular groups. In a concise definition, G. F. Kuder states:

> The essential and all important difference is that in the case of inventoried interest each possible response is given an experimentally determined weight, and the weights corresponding to the answers given by the person completing the inventory are added in order to yield a score which represents, not a single score or subjective estimate . . ., but a pattern of interests . . . .[40]

Interests, however classified, are many and varied. Several factors, such as stability of interest, age, and sex, need to be taken into consideration in determining relationships between scholastic achievement and interest. L. K. Canning[41] and others writes that interest among high school students fluctuates to a great extent. He summarizes that to the age of about twenty or twenty-one any correlation between an inventory and achievement must seriously take into

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[40] G. F. Kuder, Manual to the Kuder Preference Record (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1939, 1946).

[41] L. K. Canning, Van F. Taylor, and H. D. Carter, "Permanence of Vocational Interests of High School Boys," Journal of Educational Psychology

consideration these changes. In other words, rash predictions, even on the basis of relatively high coefficients, are more detrimental than no prediction at all. Super, on the other hand, does not go quite so far. He writes: "Patterns of interest which begin to manifest themselves by age fifteen tend to be those which are revealed at ages 25, 35, and 55."[42] Most of the changes tend to terminate by age eighteen. P. L. Dressel[43] also substantiates the fact that permanence of interest is subjected to change at earlier ages. N. Rosenberg[44] in a study administered the Kuder Vocational Blank to ninety-one boys and eighty-six girls in the ninth grade and readministered the same test in the twelfth grade. Test-retest correlations for the sample of boys ranged from 0.47 to 0.75 with median "r" of 0.61. Test-retest correlations for the girls ranged from 0.50 to 0.69 with a median of 0.61. This would appear to support Super's claims that interests tend not to change after age fifteen.

Most authors agree that, with regard to sex, males tend to be interested in physical activities, the mechanical fields, scientific undertakings, political careers, and selling. Females tend to confine themselves to art, music,

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[42]Super, op. cit.

[43]P. L. Dressel, "Interests--Stable or Unstable," Journal of Research, October, 1954, pp. 95-102.

[44]N. Rosenberg, "Stability and Maturation of Kuder Interest Patterns During High School," Educational and Psychological Measurements, XIII (1953), pp. 449-458.

literature, people, and teaching.

Aptitude, as related to interest, has been the subject of several studies. E. K. Strong[45] states categorically that "interest reflects inborn abilities." The writer has found no studies to substantiate this statement--as a matter of fact, D. C. Adkins and G. F. Kuder[46] found only one correlation above .30 in a study. This correlation was between number ability and computational interest in women. The Kuder Inventory and Primary Abilities Tests were used. Aptitude, whether an inborn trait or not, is of no significant import in a scholastic achievement and interest relationship.

Understanding the multifarious nature of achievement is no less important than understanding the meaning of interest itself if the two are compared. Achievement, for our purpose, is a measure of capacity, ability, and motivation as ascertained by others. Grades in high school subjects, ratings, and scores on standardized tests are all examples of achievement. They represent degrees of accomplishment, as measured by selected criteria, along a continuum. Of these various methods of appraising achievement, standardized tests are perhaps the most valid tolls. Norms are usually sufficient to make some comparisons with the population in general.

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[45]E. K. Strong, Vocational Interests of Men and Women (Palo Alto: Stanford University Press, 1943).

[46]Kuder, op. cit.

In reading such studies concerned with interest and achievement, one is seemingly always struck by the same generalizations and conclusions; i.e., there is little or no significant correlation between scholastic achievement and inventoried interest patterns. F. O. Triggs[47] concludes, after correlating the Kuder and general achievement as measured by the Iowa High School Content Examination and the Iowa English Training Tests, that: "Research has not indicated a substantial relationship between interest and general ability as measured by achievement tests." E. O. Shinn[48] also using the Iowa Test and the Primary Mental Ability tests as related to the Kuder Record, concluded that, though intelligence had a higher relationship to academic achievement than did interest, neither was regarded high enough to serve as the sole predictive basis. This study was based on 308 male subjects and 303 female subjects in the low tenth grade population of a San Francisco High School.

F. J. Sweeney[49] administered the California Test of Mental Maturity to 1,033 senior boys in twenty-one California High Schools. In correlating the findings with the Kuder, he

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[47] F. O. Triggs, "A Study of the Relation of Kuder Preference Record Scores to Various Other Measures," Educational and Psychological Measurements, III (1943), pp. 341-354.

[48] E. O. Shinn, "Interest and Intelligence," California Journal of Educational Research (1956-57), pp. 217-220.

[49] F. J. Sweeney, "Vocational Interest and Reading Speed," Journal of Educational Research (1954-55), pp. 159-165.

concluded: "Average vocational interest profiles differed greatly from those of three normative samples. Interest appeared more closely related to temperamental factors, other abilities, and personality factors rather than intellectual factors." The report does not cite the actual correlations on which the author based his conclusions nor does he state pertinent information concerning normative groups. It would also be interesting to know the method employed in selecting the subjects.

A. Frandsen,[50] in attempting to support Strong's hypothesis that "interests may not correlate to any great degree with achievement" used Thorndike's rank-order computational method to correlate interest achievement. This was undertaken on the individual basis to avoid the masking influence to which group correlations are susceptible--the minimization of the so-called halo factor. For each of 137 subjects (Logan, Utah, High School seniors) one achievement score and two interest scores were obtained. Average grade point ratios were computed as the measure of achievement. All courses and the nine Kuder categories in a preferred order (actually, expressed interests in both school subjects and the Kuder) were matched to actual achievement on the former and inventoried interests on the latter. The median intra-

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[50] A. Frandsen, "Interest and General Educational Development," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXXI (1947), pp. 57-66.

individual correlation between patterns of interests and actual scholastic achievement was .27. This was considered to mean that, for some students at least, there is some congruency between interest and achievement. Such a prediction is plausible when applied to groups. The coefficient of student-rated interests in school subjects and achievement was .51. A suggestion is here presented that perhaps expressed interests are more reliable or at least have higher correlation coefficients with achievement than inventoried interests. Whether it would measure real interest is another question. In any event, it should behoove interest test constructors to carefully examine this possibility if they have not already done so.

A median intra-individual correlation of .48 between Kuder interest patterns and self-rated interests in corresponding school subjects indicates that the Kuder tends to agree with another criterion of interest patterns--self-rated interests. Simply asking an individual to rank subjects in school in order of preference appears to be as effective in ascertaining scholastic achievement-interest pattern relationship as using an inventory if one is merely interested in high correlations. It also appears that at least one factor affecting correlation is one in which a student with higher interest in a certain area may be able to earn only an average grade in a subject in that area, and conversely, another student with higher aptitude and/or

motivated by strong extrinsic factors may earn a high grade despite low interest in a particular area.

E. L. Thorndike[51] found a median intra-individual correlation of .66 between interest and achievement for a group of 444 subjects. Since the students rated their interests on both subjects and inventory, not too much value is placed on the .66 correlation. Thus, in spite of the fact that expressed interests correlated more highly with achievement than do inventoried interests, many authors question the value or meaning of such correlations, substantiating previous claims that to be effective, correlations which are based on more highly controlled research--research which takes into account all possible factors affecting interest and achievement--are far better than if conducted otherwise.

W. E. Moser[52] touched on another aspect of interest in a study of the relationship between Hermon-Nelson Intelligence Quotients and interest. Of 550 high school students, those with higher mental ability tended to choose vocations which require advanced professional training. The converse also holds. From the available information, it is not possible to determine the degree of certainty with which this

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[51]E. L. Thorndike, "Interests and Abilities," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXVIII (1944), pp. 43-52.

[52]W. E. Moser, "The Influence of Certain Cultural Factors upon the Selection of Vocational Preferences by High School Students," Journal of Educational Research, XLV (1952), pp. 523-526.

statement can be made.

S. M. Wesley, B. Stewart, and D. Douglas[53] in asking the question, "Does the individual tend to show relatively stronger interests in those areas where his abilities are relatively greater than in areas where his abilities are less?" use the student's own general level of both interest and ability as the basis from which measurements are taken. One hundred and twenty-five subjects were given the Kuder Record and one or more ability tests in each interest area covered by the Kuder except the Persuasive and Social Service areas. The Army Alpha, the First Nebraska Revision, and the Minnesota Multipahsic Personality Inventory were also administered. The only conclusion reached, again, was that, in general, no significant evidence was found to answer the question in a positive manner; only one correlation was found with a coefficient above .25. There was no indication of what this correlation might be and what factors were involved.

It is known that to a relatively high degree of certainty the extent of the relationship between interest and ability is affected by the relationship between ability and achievement. If a student has high ability and correspondingly high "achievement" in school subjects, then a

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[53]S. M. Wesley, B. Stewart, and D. Douglas, "A Study of the Intra-Individual Relationship between Interest and Ability," American Psychologist (October, 1947), p. 411.

prediction has better footing than if little or no distinction is made. Interest Inventories would be much more valuable if this ability-achievement relationship could be "pegged," somehow, prior to counseling. Of course, assuming that this relationship (ability-achievement) can be measured does not make interest-achievement relationships that much more positive since motivation must also be taken into consideration. And as previously noted, motivation particularly at the earlier age is subject to constant changes.

A. Frandsen[54] comments on this relationship by saying that from the point of view of learning theory it can be assumed that relative achievement varies to some extent with relative intensity of interest in the corresponding areas, interest, it should be remembered, being only one of many factors related to and affecting achievement.

Among many other "agencies" affecting the determination of interest and vocation, E. F. Peters[55] notes that home is apparently the most powerful single agency affecting the determination of a vocation. In studying more than seven hundred high school students attending a Vocational Guidance Conference held at William Woods College, Fulton,

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[54]A. Frandsen and A. D. Session, "Interest and School Achievement," Educational and Psychological Measurement, XIII (1953), pp. 94-101.

[55]E. F. Peters, "Factors Which Contribute to Youth's Vocational Choice," Journal of Applied Psychology (1941), pp. 428-430.

Missouri, in 1940, Peters states: "The parent, a friend, a professional acquaintance, and a relative other than a parent are the most influential groups of factors which contribute to the determination of an individual's vocation."

In transition, it must now become evident to the reader that concrete research in determining interest-achievement relationships at the secondary school level is rather limited. Guidance directors, professors, and teachers are not interested, nor do they have the time or money to study interest at this level. Perhaps professors could direct their attentions to the high school in an attempt to alleviate some of the problems encountered in counseling sessions. Recent estimations are that up to 50 per cent of those admitted to colleges leave before graduation; this cannot be due solely to lack of ability, poor study habits, or improper instruction at earlier ages. If interests of students could be ascertained to a greater degree of certainty at the high school level, in addition to a flexible curriculum to satisfy these interests, success in college or industry would be that much greater.

While research is lacking in this area, many facts are known and assumptions can be made based on present-day knowledge. The foremost point to make--and it is in apparent agreement with nearly all writers--is that it is safe to assume that future findings under presently employed methods will yield essentially the same general results as

have already been discovered. Interests and achievement are generally not related to a point where sane predictions can be made based on an administration of the Kuder. Kuder[56] himself writes: "In no case is the preference Record intended to substitute for measures of ability." It is rather to direct or light a patch which might be investigated to ascertain interest.

Many writers, concerned with interest and achievement, have given advice on the use and the extent to which the Kuder should be used. They point out the pitfalls and functional aspects of the Kuder. Rosenberg[57] relates findings of an investigation by saying: "Implications for Guidance are that: (a) The Kuder Preference Record should be used cautiously with high school students; (b) The question is raised as to the advisability of schools and Guidance Personnel experimenting with the means of promoting greater interest maturity on the part of high school students." C.E. Germaine and E. G. Germaine[58] note the major limitations and values of the Kuder:

1. Information given in the inventory is not infallible; wilful intention, ignorance, or misinformation all effect scores. Answers to items may vary from year to year, making it harder to ascertain fundamental vocational interests. All aspects of interests are variables; factors such as personality, group and parent influence cannot be controlled.

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[56]Kuder, op. cit. [57]Rosenberg, op. cit.

[58]C. E. Germaine and E. G. Germaine, Personnel Work in High School (New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1941), p. 175.

Furthermore, interpretation may be dangerous if it is given by untrained individuals.

2. The excitement and fun of taking the Kuder is one of its major attributes. Changes in curriculum may be formulated on the basis of student interest. It also affords the school Counselor and teachers opportunities to interact on a different level. Choices of courses and activities can be discussed in an informal manner.

Sample correlations of eighteen Athol High School students.--With the consent of the principal and guidance director at Athol High School, the writer selected, at random, eighteen Kuder Profile Records and noted the raw scores of each profile selected. Grades in several subjects were then collected for these same students.

The purpose of this sampling is to better understand the correlational procedures involved as well as to substantiate findings in the survey. Tables 1 and 2 provide the basic data for the study.

Several factors were assumed to have some correlation and were computed. For example, scholastic music grades were assumed to have some relationship to the Kuder Musical Scale and were computed. Several other factors were also computed and are presented in Table 3.

As can be noted, little relationship was found between general mathematics grades and Kuder Profile scores. Conversely, high correlation was found between algebra grades and the Kuder Computational Scale as well as between general science and the Scientific Scale. What does this indicate? It would be indeed presumptuous to claim that

TABLE 1

KUDER PROFILE RAW SCORES FOR EIGHTEEN ATHOL HIGH SCHOOL FRESHMEN

Student	Sex	Outdoor	Mechanical	Computational	Scientific	Persuasive	Artistic	Literary	Musical	Social Services	Clerical	Group Activity	Stable Situations	Dealing With Ideas	Avoiding Conflict	Directing Others
A	f	40	24	20	53	35	20	13	7	62	57	41	41	34	47	22
B	m	35	37	33	38	36	26	24	13	41	44	39	33	29	32	34
C	f	5	16	35	49	51	14	10	20	43	87	43	32	43	43	20
D	m	52	57	25	41	26	31	19	5	31	46	15	49	18	23	36
E	m	53	33	21	55	42	13	18	4	47	50	35	38	21	38	34
F	m	70	41	14	46	41	25	21	17	27	40	29	29	24	35	45
G	f	29	5	47	34	43	16	24	18	45	67	35	39	35	55	40
H	f	32	37	25	23	43	11	21	13	50	62	36	22	37	44	34
I	m	52	53	22	63	34	23	15	8	37	41	38	46	14	34	46
J	f	23	11	33	19	37	49	38	13	14	59	-	-	-	-	-
K	f	40	23	26	29	38	23	18	14	59	72	39	30	16	49	28
L	m	48	49	31	40	33	45	13	15	21	30	-	-	-	-	-
M	m	38	20	32	58	42	16	14	21	31	69	34	27	16	48	31
N	f	36	35	16	50	42	23	13	12	64	48	45	41	37	42	23
O	f	32	33	24	33	42	17	22	13	43	60	41	34	17	37	28
P	f	18	20	32	45	57	12	17	23	43	76	42	32	49	48	17
Q	m	43	35	18	44	44	25	27	10	42	41	43	27	19	34	45
R	f	29	21	32	27	32	33	21	16	39	74	44	38	23	49	39

Mean age: 14.2.

TABLE 2

SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT RAW SCORES FOR EIGHTEEN ATHOL HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Student	Otis Beta (6th gr.)	Otis Beta (8th gr.)	S.R.A. Reading Score	English	General Science	General Mathematics	World History	Civics	General Business	Algebra	French	Music
A	--	108	90	81		76	90					77
B	86	67	6.5	61	61	61						
C	104	121	97	84			84			91	92	80
D	81	75	12	50	63	63		39				
E	94	95	38	77.5	89	81		94				
F	97	100	34	66	77			80		73		
G	109	114		87			87			92	91	89
H		92	22	64.5		71		66	66			
I	107		46	84			84			80	79	
J			59	88.5		81		85	80			
K	100	86	60	73.6	69	73		72	67			
L	93	101	32	78	79	83						
M	105	107		80	88		91			86		
N	116	112	68	80.5			81			73	66	
O	93	85	9.5	61	56	62		53				
P	117	123		85.5			89			90	92	95
Q	104	99	23	72			88			80	72	
R	91	93	17	80.5	73	75		78	75			

TABLE 3

FINDINGS

Achievement Scores	Kuder Scales	Correlation Coefficients
Correlated by Pearson Product-Moment Formula:		
Music	Musical	r. = .327
Correlated by Spearman Rho Method:		
General Math	Computational	P (rho) = .03
Algebra	Computational	P (rho) = .98
SRA Total Score	Literature	P (rho) = .61
General Science	Scientific	P (rho) = .70
English	Literature	P (rho) = .05

such findings are scientific. Too many variables have not been considered. The statistical process leaves much to be desired. Methodology and sampling would need to be defined carefully to consider such a study adequate.

However, this brief study has been of value to the writer because it was an opportunity to become acquainted with the fundamental practices of research.

The Function of Follow-ups.--The ultimate aim of follow-up studies is to gather information in an attempt to evaluate the product or result of a particular course of action. Thus, it can be considered a vehicle of research. As has already been stated in previous sections, follow-ups can serve as an important tool in perfecting the curriculum. Students, after all, are the best judges in evaluating academic programs which purport to prepare these same students for life. By periodical checks of these former

students through questionnaires or personal contacts, many facts may be gathered in evaluating present practices.

Harold J. Dillon[59] has published a study of students who left school before graduation in an attempt to introduce preventative measures in the school situation. More research is needed in this area by counselors to discover what they can do to persuade high school students to stay in school. Edward C. Roeber, Glenn E. Smith, and Clifford E. Erickson list seventeen objectives of follow-up studies. They ask such questions as:

> To what extent are various group procedures, such as Career Conferences, work-experience programs, or enrollment procedures in homerooms, attaining their objectives?
>
> What are the causes for pupils dropping school or considering such a step?
>
> To what extent are pupils oriented to each subject by the teacher of the subject?[60]

These are samples of the questions asked by these authors.

One area in which practically all counselors spend some time is in the educational intentions of graduating seniors. It appears to be a thing of great pride to be in a school with the highest percentage of graduates going on to college. Counselors point with enthusiasm to statistics proving that their school sends more students to further

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[59]Harold J. Dillon, Early School Leavers (No. 401; New York: National Child Labor Committee, 1949).

[60]Edward C. Roeber, Glenn E. Smith, and Clifford E. Erickson, Organization and Administration of Guidance Services (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1955), pp. 219-220.

schooling than East Overshoe High School in the next town. One must be careful of these figures because some counselors include on-the-job apprenticeship, evening courses, as well as armed service courses taken for immediate and specific purposes. Thus, a table indicating that 60 per cent of the graduating class is in college or plans to go to college should bring further questioning by the viewer.

Currently, most counselors prepare comprehensive tables indicating where students have been accepted for further studies. Table 4 is a nine-year follow-up study at Amherst Regional High School. There is a further subdivision noting all schools in which these students have been enrolled.

A ten-year follow-up study of graduates of Drury High School in North Adams is also included to note a slight but important difference in the tables. In Table 5 all colleges and schools attended were also listed, but the number of students enrolled in these various schools was listed. One important advantage of this table is its breakdown of schools; for example, four-year colleges, junior colleges, and so forth.

Follow-up studies of the University of Massachusetts Summer Counseling Program.--In completing his practicum, the writer has worked as a counselor in the Summer Advanced Placement Program. Working under the direction of Dr. William Field, Director of Guidance at the University,

TABLE 4

NINE-YEAR FOLLOW-UP STUDY OF GRADUATES FROM AMHERST REGIONAL HIGH SCHOOL

Class	Employed	Further Education	Armed Services	Married	Undecided	Total
1959	23.8	54.9	10.6	6.5	5.0	100.8*
1958	16.2	63.8	9.5	4.8	5.7	100.0
1957	27.8	53.2	8.9	7.6	2.5	100.0
1956	25.0	57.0	11.0	7.0	0.0	100.0
1955	15.2	53.2	16.4	6.3	8.9	100.0
1954	39.4	49.3	4.2	2.9	4.2	100.0
1953	42.8	47.6	1.2	2.4	6.0	100.0
1952	31.0	46.0	11.5	3.4	8.1	100.0
1951	29.6	59.2	5.6	1.4	4.2	100.0

*Total is greater than 100 per cent because one boy is listed under the categories of both further education and married.

NOTE: The class of 1959 contained 122 graduates--70 girls and 52 boys. A survey in November 1959 revealed the distribution shown above. Similar statistics for previous classes are included for purposes of comparison. These statistics are given in percentages.

TABLE 5

A TEN-YEAR STUDY OF GRADUATES FROM DRURY HIGH SCHOOL
WHO HAVE ENTERED HIGHER INSTITUTIONS

Class	State Teachers Colleges	4-Year Colleges	Junior Colleges	Vocational and Preparatory Schools	Total	Number of Graduates	Per Cent
1948	10	21	4	15	50	168	29.5
1949	21	21	7	29	78	193	40.8
1950	18	19	4	18	59	200	29.7
1951	10	24	3	16	53	202	26.2
1952	7	31	1	7	46	174	26.4
1953	21	31	7	17	76	192	39.5
1954	12	20	11	14	57	183	31.14
1955	16	32	7	25	80	194	43.95
1956	10	27	3	16	56	131	42.7
1957	17	17	7	15	76	156	48.7
1958		64	23	21	108	174	62.0

NOTE: The statistics given above show the number of students entering higher institutions compared with the total number of graduates.

the writer has become interested in several aspects of the program. The testing and counseling areas are discussed at length in later chapters.

Before presenting follow-up studies, some explanation of the purposes and scope of the program is in order. Initiated under the direction of Dr. Field, the program seeks to advance-place incoming Freshmen who have the basic qualifications to bypass introductory courses. Orientation of parents as well as students constitutes another important aspect of the program. This will be discussed in a later section.

To advance-place students, a series of tests based on high school courses and general achievement is administered. The procedures used in selecting these students varied for each of the courses involved: English, Mathematics, Chemistry, Zoology, and Languages. Most of the procedures were compromises between the most desirable and the most nearly feasible under the limitations imposed by time and staff. For example, students who have had two or three years of a foreign language and have obtained good grades are assigned to take the advanced language placement test. Depending on their scores, they may choose an advanced course. If they score high enough, they are automatically credited with two years of a language.

The ultimate question in this area of such a program is: How well do these advance-placed students perform

without the benefit of introductory courses? In the following tables it can be seen that with regard to grades advance-placed students performed slightly better in most cases than students who took introductory courses; in some cases advance-placed students performed much better. As stated by Dr. Field, "the most soundly planned program, that in English, was clearly most successful."

Tables 6, 7, 8, and 9 are based on advance-placed students in the Class of 1961. Since the aim of this paper is merely to survey, in this case, follow-up studies, only a sampling of advance-placed students in English is presented.

Follow-up studies occupy an important niche in the counselor's program; they are invaluable in evaluating his counseling as well as the curriculum itself. As can be observed in the previous tables, an advance-placement program is of distinct value at the college level. The writer is of the opinion that such a program--on a smaller scale--could add immeasurably to a high school program. Planning and introducing such a program at the high school level is a major objective of this writer.

Guidance in Groups

That most objectives in education may satisfactorily be met in groups need not be defended at length. Humans, being of a gregarious nature for the most part, have always gone about their aims in life by interacting with one

TABLE 6

GRADE DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN ENGLISH 2 WITH CORRESPONDING QUALITY POINT RATIOS

For All First Semester Courses			
Quality Point Averages	English 2 Letter Grades A	B	C
3.9	1		
3.8	4		
3.6	1	1	
3.4	6	2	
3.3	2		
3.1	1		1
3.0	1	2	
2.9	3	1	
2.8		1	
2.7	1		
2.6		2	
2.5	1	1	
2.3	1		
2.2			1
2.1	1	1	
1.9		1	
1.8		1	1
1.7		1	
1.5			1
1.4			1
.6		1	
Total	23	15	5

TABLE 7

CLASSIFICATION BY ACADEMIC DIVISION OF THOSE ENROLLED IN ENGLISH 2

Academic Division	Number	Quality Point Ratio
Arts and Science	26	2.8*
Engineering	5	3.1
Business Administration	1	3.8
Education	8	2.9*
Home Economics	3	2.6
Nursing	1	.6
Agriculture	1	1.8
Total	45	

*One case missing.

TABLE 8

PERCENT OF TOTAL GROUP RECEIVING EACH LETTER GRADE IN ENGLISH 2 AND THE MEAN SEMESTER QPR OF THOSE MAKING UP EACH GROUP

	Letter Grades			
	A	BB	C	Total (N = 43)
Per Cent Receiving Each Grade	53	35	12	100
Mean Quality Point Average of Those Receiving Each Grade	3.2	2.5	2.0	2.8

TABLE 9

MEAN PERCENTILE RANKS ON THE CLASSIFICATION TEST FOR STUDENTS RECEIVING EACH LETTER GRADE IN ENGLISH 2

Grade	N	Verbal	Numerical	Information	Vocabulary	Speed Comp'n	Mechanical
A	23	86	67	71	87	82	88
B	15	86	65	68	88	84	86
C	5	91	51	85	89	87	89
All Grades Combined	43	87	65	71	87	83	87

another. It is thus very natural, economically, and educationally profitable to educate ourselves in groups. In fact, it would not be presumptuous or insulting to suggest that students get more out of a class than the instructor puts into it.

It is for those reasons that some practices in guidance may best be accomplished in groups. R. D. Allen summarizes well some basic purposes of guidance in groups:

> 1. . . . they provide continuity of contacts between the counselor and his students for an appreciable period of time.
> 2. Without a program of group activities, guidance would be largely remedial, repairing the machine after the damage has been done. It is necessary to prepare students in advance with the information and the procedures . . . .
> 3. Every group guidance activity is an open invitation for pupils to come to the counselor for assistance with individual problems.[61]

Margaret Bennett, in recognizing that guidance is a "learning process" for both the counselor and the student, lists a number of objectives through which such groups may function. Included in her suggestions are:

> 1. Assistance in orientation.
> 2. Group study of problems of interpersonal relationships.
> 3. Problems of growing up and adjustment to adulthood.
> 4. Application of efficiency methods in learning.

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[61]Richard D. Allen and Margaret E. Bennett, "Guidance through Group Activities," Guidance in Educational Institutions, 37th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Bloomington, Ill.: The Public School Publishing Co., 1938).

5. Occupational life and adjustment.
6. Study of common human problems.
7. To provide opportunity for therapeutic effects of group procedures.[62]

These seven suggestions and others cover all conceivable areas in which the counselor may help his students through guidance in groups.

Mitchell Dreese brings out an important aspect in saying:

> . . . group guidance is interpreted as those guidance processes conducted in groups and designed to assist "normal" individuals to analyze problems of choice and adjustment which confront them and to work out constructive solutions based upon adequate knowledge of self and knowledge of the areas in which choice and adjustments must be made.[63]

Obviously, a counselor would have to devote all of his time each day, five days a week, if he were to be responsible for the counselor load recommended by Conant.[64] In short, it would be a full-time teaching load. To introduce such a comprehensive guidance-in-groups program, some high school officials have sought to implement group-guidance objectives in Psychology classes. But high school Psychology classes, for the most part--if they are to be termed Psychology classes--are not designed as group-guidance sessions.

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[62]Margaret E. Bennett, Guidance in Groups (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1955), p. 6.

[63]Mitchell Dreese, "Group Guidance and Group Therapy," Review of Educational Research, XXVII, No. 2 (April, 1957), pp. 219-227.

[64]Conant, loc. cit.

They are a junior version of introductory college Psychology courses where Pavlovian stimulus-response techniques, the biological aspects of man, and the personality developmental traits and theories are stressed.

While these certainly meet some of the broader objectives of guidance as recommended by Bennett,[65] there are also the occupational and college aspects which must be taken into consideration.

It has been suggested[66] to the writer that much of the work of disseminating vocational and college information could be assimilated in the regular Civics class. Thinking about the laments made public by many high school students, the writer is suggesting that perhaps a change in the scope and purposes of Civics classes could very well be initiated to include some aspects of group guidance. The basic structure and objectives of Civics courses would not be changed. Rather, a condensation of the functions of local, state, and national governmental agencies could be followed by studies of career opportunities in these agencies--which are ever increasing--and by career opportunities in other areas. Such an arrangement could serve as a timely vehicle in the introduction of occupational information.

Returning to Bennett's recommendations, the writer

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[65]Conant, loc. cit.

[66]Dr. Ralph Pippert, College of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts.

reviews and presents some findings in the area of her objectives. It is assumed that the counselor is the responsible agent in fulfilling these objectives. The theoretical aspects and methodology are of prime concern; counselor load, time, and budget are not considered within the scope of this paper.

Orientation of Students.--The "unknown" is undoubtedly the sole generator of anxiety. That all students have anxieties is almost too trite to mention. Entering high school students, as well as entering college students, have many questions to ask--they are anxious to do the right thing.

The writer suggests that the first class should start with a discussion of anxieties--its causes and how to deal with them. This could be followed by discussions of the school--its purpose and its curriculum from the student's point of view. Student participation in allied activities and their benefits would also be an appropriate topic of discussion.

Literature in the field of orientation is not too plentiful. One short pamphlet by Martha R. Wright[67] entitled "The Big Summer Before College" is a short and concise appraisal of the status of students after acceptance

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[67]Martha R. Wright, "The Big Summer Before College." A booklet reprinted from the New York Times, May 17, 1959, by special permission.

and before entrance into college. She provides many suggestions of what students could do to prepare themselves for college. A list of fifty great books is included for the eager student. Such pre-entrance orientation can help students overcome some anxieties.

Included in the University of Massachusetts Summer Counseling Program are several sessions in which the incoming freshmen are briefed by the Dean of Women and the Dean of Men. There is, of course, the personal briefing by advisors who together with the student plan a program satisfactory to the student. In their first class meeting, students are asked to fill in cards designating their desires to participate in the many clubs, organizations of the university.

This problem of transition to work and college should be of definite interest to the counselor. Speakers and films have an important function at this point. Field trips to industrial plants and colleges also serve to dissipate uncertainties.

Many facts and figures of positive adjustment programs in New England are published in a pamphlet entitled "Effective Practices in Guidance and Adjustment."[68] A particular study, that of a Providence high school, is note-

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[68] Effective Practices in Guidance and Adjustment (Cambridge: New England School Development Counsel, Nov. 1949) Ralph W. Proctor, Ed., p. 7.

worthy. The authors consider adjustment education as therapeutic in nature. The aim of the program is to help the "Huckleberry Finns" of the junior high school adjust to high school. The writer maintains that most students are--to degrees--"Huckleberry Finns" and need help in adjusting to new situations.

The case study method is another useful tool in helping students understand problems of general adjustment. The usual procedure is to pass out a printed study of "Johnny" who "has just moved into a new school." It is known that Johnny is a bright boy and performed well in the previous school; he participated in clubs, sports, and in classes. Then the question is asked: Why is Johnny having trouble adjusting to the new school?

Students are most always eager to express their views and volunteer solutions or courses of action to the problem. These case study methods are excellent vehicles in introducing new topics such as orientation and adjustment.

The work of helping students adjust to new situations through orientation sessions should not be very structured. To be certain, however, planning is necessary; but direction should be provided by the students themselves. The counselor should present ideas and information and follow a basic outline to insure inclusion of certain basic factors. Preparing students for college should follow the

same general pattern.

Career and College Planning.--Aiding students plan careers can be effectively introduced in the groups. In his practicum work, the writer spent a number of days studying the vocational program at Amherst Regional High School. Career planning, although not conducted through group guidance classes, is a definite and well-established aspect of the guidance program. Elimination blanks (Figure 4) are circulated through the school and filled in by the students. The basis of including these various areas in the Career Day is determined by the number of students requesting speakers in these fields. A full program is then planned and a Career Day booklet is published noting all speakers and vocational areas to be discussed.

This serves as an important beginning in introducing students to occupations. Practically all areas of the occupational world can be associated with those listed on the registration form. In the group guidance class, students could work in groups of interest in further developing these areas. The counselor should have ample numbers of publications in the library or in his office to facilitate inquisitive students. The various Federal departments publish hundreds of pamphlets on careers in government and private concerns and these are available to all students on request.

The case study method can again be of great value

Fig. 4.--Elimination blank used for planning Career Day at Amherst Regional High School

Last Name _____ First Name _____ Homeroom No. _____

REGISTRATION FOR CAREER DAY SESSIONS
Wednesday, March 23, 1960

Speakers will be obtained for the following careers. Place a check mark beside your choice in Column 1 and a second check mark beside your choice in Column 2.

Col. 1	First Session 1:47 p.m.-2:17 p.m.	Col. 2	Second Session 2:20 p.m.-2:50 p.m.
_____	Armed Forces - Boys	_____	Armed Forces - Boys
_____	Armed Forces - Girls	_____	Armed Forces - Girls
_____	Engineer	_____	Engineer
_____	Medical Technician	_____	Medical Technician
_____	Nurse	_____	Nurse
_____	Office Worker	_____	Office Worker
_____	Scientist	_____	Scientist
_____	State Policeman	_____	State Policeman
_____	Accountant	_____	Beautician
_____	Airline Stewardess	_____	Engineering Technician
_____	Auto Mechanic	_____	Home Economist
_____	Teacher--Elementary	_____	Medical Doctor
_____	Univ. of Mass.--Boys*	_____	Teacher--High School
_____	Univ. of Mass.--Girls*	_____	Holyoke Junior College*
		_____	Stockbridge School of Agriculture*

*Speakers in these sections will discuss majors, careers, and placement opportunities.

in selecting an occupation. Bennett[69] exemplifies the procedure involved with a typical case. The counselor presents a typical case of the student who is uncertain about his vocational plans. He has been receiving good grades in English, Mathematics, and Government. He is interested in Foreign Service work but has no language background. Alternatives are then presented to the students and they are asked to weight evidence and decide what this particular student should undertake.

Another point of entry could be made through Self-Inventories such as the Kuder Vocational Interest Blank and the Flanagan Aptitude Classification Test.[70] The value of such inventories for this purpose should be based on the interest they generate and not so much on their predictive ability. Most counselors agree that such blanks create much interest on the part of the student. In spite of their limitations--which should be pointed out to the students--interest inventories may serve some ends if they are within the financial means of the school.

In a specific example of a planned vocational program, the writer refers to the group guidance classes in the Chicopee School System. To introduce students to local vocational needs, the school department has organized

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[69]Bennett, op. cit. (Appendix A)

[70]Flanagan Aptitude Classification Tests, a special pamphlet published by Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois.

occupational classes in the seventh and eighth grades.[71] Objectives of the program include:

1. Appreciation for work and the worker.

2. The major fields of occupations in the city of Chicopee.

3. The importance of saving and spending in Chicopee.

4. The dependency of every worker on every other worker.

5. Job availability in the city.

6. The needs for various abilities, interests, and aptitudes in developing the economy of any community.

7. Developing the ability to recognize the geographic factors (grade 7) and the historical factors (grade 8) which are important in the development of a city.

8. The factors involved in choosing an occupation.

In organizing the classes, committees are set up to:

1. Gather information to be used in the class.

2. Arrange for speakers and films.

3. Arrange interviews and field trips.

Studies of many specific occupations are undertaken by members of the class. The mechanics of conducting such a survey are stressed and each student is expected to

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[71] From a mimeographed outline entitled "Group Guidance: Grades 7 and 8. Chicopee Workers" by the Chicopee School Department.

develop skills in interviewing and letter-writing, for example. Traits to be stressed include:

1. Respect for rights and privileges of others.
2. Steadiness as a worker.
3. Willingness to accept responsibility.
4. Physical fitness.
5. Ability to follow as well as lead.
6. Self-control.
7. Ability to think and act independently.

At the end of the year much time is spent in evaluating the various surveys, methods of studying occupations, and individual student progress in interviewing, letter-writing, and understanding the traits discussed in class. This program covers many important aspects of the vocational world. It is initiated at a time when students are awakening to the fact that they, too, will soon be engaged in an occupation. One important question brought out is: How do people choose an occupation?

Robert Hoppock[72] reviews the various occupations and formulates what the writer considers the "grass roots" theory. He states that "occupations are chosen to meet needs."[73] This, he goes on to say, should be the central

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[72]Robert Hoppock, Occupational Information: Where To Get It in Counseling and Teaching (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957), pp. 86-113.

[73]Ibid., p. 74.

guide in developing a program of occupational choice in the school setting. He presents an outline to implement this theory.[74]

The outline starts with questionnaires of intentions, self-appraisals, and evaluation, and continues to the study of occupations which might satisfy these interests and personal qualifications. The writer believes this to be the best approach in helping students choose an occupation because it individualizes the entire approach to occupations.

College Planning.--Some time should be spent with those students who plan to go to college. College catalogs should be made available to all students and the counselor should be prepared to provide basic financial and educational information to these students. The latest provisions of the National Defense Student Loan Program, local and national scholarship foundation policies, as well as exchange study arrangements, should be within easy access of the counselor and the student. Beyond these preparations on the part of the counselor, college planning should be largely the responsibility of the individual student.

At this point, the writer wishes to refer again to what he considers the basic objectives of guidance and use them as a guiding light in assisting students in selecting

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[74] Ibid., p. 414.

a college or a career. This objective is to help the student to understand that it is his (the student's) responsibility to investigate and appraise opportunities. Some writers justify this approach by suggesting that "it is better that he make the mistake than I." The counselor need not resort to this negative argumentation to justify his actions of insisting that students assume major responsibility in selecting an occupation. The counselor, by providing all economically feasible printed material together with his own storehouse of information to the student, will have accomplished the basic aim in the dissemination of occupational information.

The second aim is to explain this information as it applies to the individual student. In this way the counselor will be helping the student develop techniques of decision-making so that he will be able to approach new problems in a systematic manner in the future.

The counselor cannot accomplish this by being a sort of silver spoon or platter to any student. The writer can visualize a growing mass of parasite-like humans constantly going to their "leader" for direction.

This self-direction approach is being followed by an increasing number of counselors who are attempting to reverse a growing "feed-me" materialism which started with the resurgent economy after the depression. However, the keynote still seems to be "I am working hard to give my son

the bicycle, train, and other toys (which now includes a powered toy car) that I never had."

Testing in Guidance

Clifford P. Froehlich and Arthur L. Benson cite three broad objectives of a testing program. They are:

1. Administrative and instructional purposes,
2. For general student guidance purposes,
3. To meet the student's personal needs.[75]

Within the framework of these objectives, the counselor may develop an important aspect of the total educational process: the measuring process. Since our educational system is a comprehensive, continuous, and organized attempt to change the individual in such a manner as he will understand himself, mankind, and his environment, a system of appraising and evaluating this change is inevitable in our scientifically minded society. It is thus hoped that, by so doing, better methods of instruction will result. In the past measuring those changes was left largely to the individual teacher. As the techniques of measurements were refined, they became more complicated and time-consuming. Today specially trained personnel are needed to further develop and refine techniques of measurements in an organized attempt to improve teaching methods and student appraisal rapidly. Thus, the counseling process has been initiated to better

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[75]Clifford P. Froehlich and Arthur L. Benson, Guidance Testing (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1948), p. 4.

meet these "special" needs of students.

To be most effective, the counselor must be of service to the administrators. He must provide administrators with answers to such questions as:

1. How are our students doing as compared with students in other schools?

2. Has the curriculum provided our students with those skills which they will need in college or in an occupation?

3. Are there subjects in which our students are not doing as well as they should in terms of their abilities?

4. How may we best convey student progress to the parents?

5. Are our students more capable now than they were ten or twenty years ago?

6. How may we best deal with our very bright students? The dull student?

Counselors may help teachers understand and know their students better by providing them with information about each student at the beginning of the year. In this way the teachers can save time by preparing their first lessons to meet the needs of the students. Through standardized tests each teacher can find out what her students know, their weak points, and possibly their emotional dispositions. At the end of the year she may repeat standardized testing to evaluate her teaching methods and student progress. All

such information may be derived from a general and sound testing program. It need not be extensive but it must be carefully planned to be of service to teachers, administrators, and parents.

The individual student, however, is the prime factor of an adroitly planned testing program; for it is, after all, for him that such a program exists. Test information should be of immediate as well as of long-range assistance in planning his vocation and education. Standardized test results, together with achievement grades and teacher appraisal, can serve the student in many ways. Under this second point of Froehlich and Benson can be included results of the general testing program and its interpretation to the student in groups or alone. Thus, achievement scores, aptitude test scores, interest test scores may all be of use to the student as well as to the teacher, parents, and administrators. The objective data on students' general ability and their strength and weakness in academic work, along with information on classroom performance, personality characteristics and goals, can be useful to the students in making decisions about future plans.[76]

Such tests are also used as a screening device in uncovering students in need of special assistance. As a result, special attention can be given to meet special

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[76]Essential Characteristics of a Testing Program (Los Angeles: Educational Testing Service), No. 2.

student needs. This aspect might include the use of such tests as the Stanford-Binet and the Wechsler Intelligence scales.

What Should Be Measured.--Anne Anastasi contends that "the function of psychological tests is to measure individual differences; if everyone were alike there would be no need for testing."[77] Testing constitutes the basic raison d'être of the guidance program. Through refinement of measuring instruments, the counselor is becoming increasingly effective in isolating student differences and predicting success.

Standardized test results are perhaps the most objective measuring devices existing today. The administration and interpretation of the many available tests necessitates special training. The counselor is the only individual in the school setting who has the time and training to carry on a full-scale testing program and to use the results effectively.

Planning and Improving the Testing Program.--That guidance testing should be planned by teachers and administrators as well as counselors should be a foregone conclusion. Counselors, however, should be the leaders in planning what tests to use, how many should be administered, and how the results should be reported. The entire program rests on how well they can answer the teachers' and the administrators'

77Anne Anastasi, Psychological Testing (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1954), p. 3.

questions. Therefore, the counselor should be alert to their needs along with those of the students in selecting tests.

To the reader who objects to the statement concerned with "strong counselor leadership," the writer answers that the counselor, since he has the responsibility of appraising and measuring student differences, should be assured to have the necessary qualifications or should not be hired.

This represents one area in which better tests or measuring devices would be of great value in selecting administrators and teachers as well as counselors. This would eliminate the large numbers of supervisors with whom some school systems are hindered.

With such professional teachers, the counselor is able to continually improve his services by aiding those who request information. Standardized tests results over the years provide norms, both local and national, with which comparisons may be made. As a result, only the better standardized tests should be included and retained. This is why the counselor must be familiar with the reliability and validity of a test as well as with the standardization procedure and sampling group.

After all, tests must serve a practical purpose. Achievement tests, aptitude tests, and general tests of intelligence all have definite and proven value in any school testing program. Of questionable value in the secondary

schools are such tests purporting to measure interest and personality. The latter is the most difficult to justify because of the generally low correlations and the special training needed to administer and interpret them, not to mention the purpose for which they were designed. The counselor administering and interpreting such tests is encroaching on the therapeutic grounds of the clinical psychologist. The guidance counselor is not such a person--his aim is not to cure but to appraise the student. Interest tests may be justified on the grounds that they tend to motivate students to consider vocational opportunities in the light of their expressed and mentioned interests.

Guidance testing must be professional if it is to be effective. The counselor must minimize the so-called "I.Q." concept and gossiping, even by teachers. The counselor who makes it his business to classify and "peg" students to teachers, other students, and administrators should soon be out of business. It is not his purpose to report to those not directly concerned that such-and-such a student has low ability. If testing is to be professional, an understanding and mutual trust must be developed between the student and the counselor.

Test Selection and Interpretation.--Tests should be included in the program to obtain information which cannot be otherwise and more economically obtained. Simply asking a student what his vocational interests are has been proven to

be just as effective as measuring interest, together with achievement scores and interest inventories. Such inventories are not very useful if the counselor is simply seeking to find out what his students are interested in.

Froehlich and Benson[78] state that a good test of general reading ability is more valuable in counseling the student than any other specific tests because a language test is more important and wider in scope than, say, an algebra test. Since few schools have much money at their disposal, it should behoove the counselor to select tests which are both comprehensive, valid, and reliable.

Figure 5 is included as an example of an all-around, well-planned, testing program. The one objection raised by the writer is the inclusion of the Kuder Inventory. The writer believes that an inventory, if it is a part of the testing program, should be administered twice. It would be more useful if administered at the beginning of the Sophomore year and toward the end of the senior year. Change in individual interests, if any, could be noted for each student. Over the years this could serve to substantiate the predictive value of the test.

A battery of carefully chosen tests is administered to incoming Freshmen at the University of Massachusetts. Depending on majors, high school achievement scores, rank in

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[78]Froehlich and Benson, loc. cit., p. 9.

Fig. 5.--Amherst Public Schools Testing Program

Grade	When Administered	Type of Test	Name of Test
1	Fall	Reading Readiness	Metropolitan Harrison-Stroud
	Winter	Mental Ability	SRA Primary Mental Abilities
	Spring	Achievement	Stroud-Hieronymus-McKee (Level 1) Reading Profile
2	Spring	Achievement	Stroud-Hieronymus-McKee (Level 2) Reading Profile
3	Fall	Achievement	Iowa Tests of Basic Skills
	Winter	Mental Ability	SRA Primary Mental Abilities
4	Fall	Achievement	Iowa Tests of Basic Skills
5	Fall	Achievement	Iowa Tests of Basic Skills
	Winter	Mental Ability	SRA Primary Mental Abilities
6	Fall	Achievement	Iowa Tests of Basic Skills
7	Fall	Achievement	Iowa Tests of Basic Skills
	Fall	Mental Ability	Otis Q-S. Beta
8	Fall	Aptitude	Differential Aptitude Test
9	Fall	Achievement	Iowa Tests of Basic Skills
10	Fall	Mental Ability	Otis Q-S. Gamma
	Fall	Achievement	Co-operative English Test Test C Reading Comprehension
11	Winter	Interest	Kuder Preference Record-Vocational
12	Fall	Achievement	SCAT (School and College Ability Test)

graduation class, and the college board, each student is assigned to take several of these tests. The results are reported in stens of from 0 to 9. To be advance-placed, a student must achieve a departmentally predetermined sten in a given test. It is thus possible for the exceptional student to clear the college two-year language requirements without taking a language course in college. In the same manner, students may be advance-placed in all those areas for which there are tests. Conversely, students, who, for example, have passed two or three years of a foreign language in high school and do not perform well in the placement test, may be forced to take introductory courses without credit.

The writer believes that this approach is an excellent method of dealing with the homogenious or heterogenious grouping problem in high school systems. Why not develop such an advance-placement program in these schools? Individual students could progress through the grades on the merits of their abilities, be they endowed or developed through hard work. There are some schools in which such programs are being successfully introduced. Many states, however, still demand four years of English, entirely neglecting individual differences or being afraid that the student will "miss something" if he is promoted. The homogenious grouping methods, while effective, also serve to multiply the number of classes and teacher loads.

A well-designed placement testing program could very

well serve as the basis for curriculum change in the public school system.

If there is one area of the testing program which requires the counselor to exercise greater skill, it is in the interpretation of test results. Test scores are useless to those who do not fully understand what they mean. The counselor must not only know the statistical procedure involved in testing but also be able to translate the information to the layman. Many systems have been developed to do this. Percentiles, age scores, and standard scores are the most satisfactory methods of reporting achievement scores. With such scores, students are compared with national and local norms. With percentile scores, the students' relative positions in a group can be easily seen, but the differences between scores are obscured in smaller groups. Several disadvantages of age scores which are used with tests of intelligence include: variability of intelligence at different ages, the meaninglessness of value of a single numerical score, and mental "shrinkage" which apparently takes place with age.[79] Grade placement scores are adequate if one wishes only to know the English grade placement of Johnny. Through standardized tests it is possible to say that Johnny is performing as well as the average student in Grade X. A limitation of the grade placement concept is that it does

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[79]Anastasi, op. cit., p. 75.

not indicate the areas in which a particular student is strong or weak. A student may be penalized because he cannot spell but otherwise is an excellent English student.

A profile of standard scores of various subject matter standardized on a single cross-sectional group is the best approach in preparing to report test results. These actual standardized scores are then translated into meaningful terms for the student.

A simple method is to point out to the student the sten or quarter in which he scores as compared with a particular group. A mortality table should be constructed (if prediction is intended) to determine the student's chance of success in a particular area. It is thus possible to say to the student: "Eight out of ten students whose scores are identical to yours succeeded . . . ."

Testing constitutes the most objective method of appraising students. Widely selected tests, a wide knowledge of the statistics involved in testing, interpretation, standardization procedures, and the development of local norms serve to insure the success of a guidance program. The energetic counselor constantly searches for better testing devices in order to be in a better position to help his students.

Interviewing in Guidance

A well-planned, cordial, face-to-face meeting with

the student is perhaps the most important single aspect of guidance. This "talking out" process between the student and the counselor is the only way to help those students with special needs, great or small. It may serve to encourage students in their schoolwork, release emotional tensions from the home or the school, help so-called "juvenile delinquents" see the consequence of their actions and motivate them into positive action, or it may simply provide personal information. It is the place where final results of standardized testing are made known and course selections and college or vocational planning take place. To be most efficient, the counselor must be alert and sensitive to student reactions during the interview. He must be able to formulate hypotheses about the student and test them. A handshake, a nervous twitch, or laughter all have particular meanings. The counselor should be sure of possible implications in those reactions for they may mean nothing for one student but be very important in helping another.

Theories of Interviewing.--There are as many techniques to psychological interviewing as there are interviewers. The continuum ranges all the way from Freudian psychoanalytical methods to Williamson's information-giving approach. For the purpose of clarity, methods of interviewing may be divided into three categories: directive, eclectic, and non-directive.[80] The writer believes the eclectic

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[80]As suggested by Dr. Ralph Pippert, School of Education, University of Massachusetts.

approach to be the most useful at the secondary school level, eclectic here being defined as those features of directive and non-directive counseling organized into an approach best suited for the counselor.

Elaborate and complicated theories have been formulated by such noteworthy psychologists as Freud and his disciples, Jung, Adler, and Rank, who in turn developed their own theories.[81] Basically, these psychologists are concerned with uncovering the basic drives of patients. Freud, for example, states that "each person learns early in life that the undridled expression of his impulses leads to disintegrating experiences."[82] These psychologists seek to uncover these "disintegrating experiences" and help the patient to live "around them"--to deal with them effectively.

The neobehaviorists, Roger, Hilgard, Tolman, and Hull, to mention only a few, call themselves experimentalists concerned not so much with uncovering anxieties but with reducing them. These authors have concerned themselves with the basic emotional drives, also, but only to discover treatments and remedies which could effectively deal with these tensions. Rogers,[83] in his theory of personality, stresses

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81Harold B. Pepinsky and Pauline N. Pepinsky, Counseling Theory and Practices (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1954), pp. 38-44.

82Ibid., p. 107.

83Carl R. Rogers, "Some Direction and Points in Therapy," Psychotherapy: Theory and Research (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1953).

the tendencies of the organisms to maintain themselves psychologically and physiologically. This is his "single directional force in nature." His non-directive approach allows a permissive, non-threatening relationship which permits the student to examine repressed experiences. The basic assumption is that the individual has the potentiality to resolve his own problems. Thus, non-directive counselors argue that it is not necessary to unearth deeply repressed information. The writer agrees that the student does in fact have these potentialities, and the counselor should include those aspects of non-directive counseling which enable students to call on their reserved potentialities. However, guidance in the secondary school is much more inclusive than the treatment of personal emotional problems. What about those students seeking "just plain information"? Are we to assume that they, too, have more serious problems but do not bring them out for some reason?

The counselor is directive when he formulates a standard set of questions or standard stimuli to elicit responses from the student. This approach, perhaps the most scientific in nature, has some important features. By noting responses to standardized stimuli, the counselor may be able to understand the student's particular frame of mind because he can compare responses with other similar situations. The assumption is that thinking and reasoning are much the same for students who have "like" problems.

Open-end questions, for example, are answered differently by students from different socio-economic classes and by the emotionally disturbed versus the well-adjusted.

Unlike the non-directive approach, the directive approach theory assumes that students who come to the counselor with problems cannot solve these problems by themselves. By accepting this approach, the counselor's basic philosophy of guidance must necessarily be one of continually providing "services" to the student. The writer cannot accept this as the best means of helping the student develop his potentialities of solving his own problems in the future. The process of solving problems is believed by the writer to be the most important aspect of interviews concerned with emotional disturbances if they are at all within the scope of the counselor's own personal qualifications.

The non-directive counselor assumes that the student, if left alone, will talk about whatever is "uppermost" in his mind, which is his immediate problem. This approach tends to minimize the effects of defense systems "built" into every human being. With the directive counselor, the interview is structured to leave the burden of leading the discussion on the counselor. As a result, the student follows these standardized stimuli. With the qualified counselor, the directive system may be very useful as previously mentioned.

With the eclectic approach, the counselor formulates

a basic "synthesis" of the above two theories. Again, the writer wishes to emphasize that eclecticism here defined does not mean that an interviewer changes directions or approach after the interview has begun. The "synthesis" has been formulated before application, not during. Philosophically, eclecticism in interviewing is the attempt to "straddle the two opposite camps; one emphasizing the problems of cognition (understanding matters of fact) and the other camp emphasizing their troubles as primarily problems of motivation and emotion." Bordin goes on to say:

> In many ways the psychobiological point of view [which he considers akin to eclecticism] is an extension of medical practices, in that it involves empirical, nontheoretical sizing up of the individual as a totality and the application of some commonsense hypothesis to him and his needs.[84]

According to Bordin, then, we must understand, or attempt to understand, all three aspects of man if we are to help him.

The writer would suggest, however, that the eclectic approach is a theory--at least of approach. It has adopted those aspects of the two "camps" in formulating an approach.

The interviewing process.--Bingham, Moore, and Gustad term the interview as a process of communication. Four steps are involved in the process:

1. Situations, problems, states of feeling, or desired to be discovered.
2. Encoding devices, the translation of the problem

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[84]Edward S. Bordin, Psychological Counseling (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1955), pp. 103-125.

into ideas or patterns of thinking by the counselor.
3. Transmission system, words and gestures.
4. Decoding devices, the analysis of a message for its meaning.[85]

These authors point out that the straightforward approach is to be desired over the directive approach.[86] They cite several dynamics of personality which should be of particular concern to the counselor: suppression, rationalization, and repression.

The suppression of facts or thoughts is common to all of us. The counselee, since he has come to the counselor for reinforcement, will sometimes suppress certain facts. The counselor is more efficient when he encourages the student to discuss his problems. The best way to minimize suppression is to gain the confidence of the student. The counselor who continually exhibits respect for the individual and keeps interviews confidential will soon have the reputation necessary to deal with suppression of facts.

The best approach to rationalization is simply to say nothing which would elicit further rationalizations. The most naive counselor would attempt to explain that the counselee is rationalizing because he needs to build up his "ego."

Repression is the act of burying facts so deeply that

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[85] Walker Van Dyke Bingham, Bruce V. Moore, and John W. Gustad, How to Interview (4th ed.; New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959), pp. 9-10.

[86] Ibid., p. 14.

the counselee is no longer aware of their existence. The average high school counselor does not have the necessary training to undertake therapy of this magnitude. This is the psychoanalyst's main area of interest--attempting to uncover repressed information. There is also the question of what to do with this information once it is uncovered. Only the highly trained person is in a position to effect cures based on deep-rooted information. A school of thought holds that it is not necessary to "dig back" in effecting change in the patient. Proponents assert that "reconstruction of personality" is just as effective in having the students remember certain anxieties as subjecting these same students to facts which they have sought diligently to hide from themselves. In short, it may not be necessary to bring these facts to the surface at all. The counselor who assumes that the student may effect his own positive changes through this "talking-out" process may thus be eclectic by encouraging the student to go on, reviewing what the student has said, and suggesting some possible factors of information or simply giving the student some basic occupational or educational information which might be all that the student is seeking. In this way the counselor is not limiting himself to either the cognitive factors or problems of motivation or emotion. He allows the student the opportunity to launch into a deep and serious discussion or simply the pleasure of idle talk.

In any discussion which involves theory, there are bound to be many disagreements as to the best approach. The writer has sought to present these opposing views as they pertain to the interviewing process. Remembering the wide scope of guidance, one must not become too involved or interested in any one aspect. The counselor, however, must have an approach to interviewing--in the writer's opinion, eclecticism is the best answer. He is not bound to make a "practice" of interviewing itself, but at the same time has the opportunity to develop those particular problems which are within his capacities and realm. He should be aware of what he can and cannot do in interviewing, and he should be prepared to refer to competent psychologists those problems beyond his scope.

Regardless of the counselor's approach, there are certain rules to follow in interviewing. The writer concludes this section by citing Froehlich and Benson who have drawn up fourteen excellent points to keep in mind before each interview:

1. Get ready for the interview by studying all available data.
2. Prepare a plan and purpose for each interview but do not hold it rigidly if the pupil brings other problems.
3. Get the pupil to talk; do not try to tell him.
4. Put the pupil at ease during the interview.
5. Try to interview as if you were his equal.
6. Admit that you do not know the answer to questions; do not bluff.
7. Be interested in what the pupil says, but do not be so interested that you try to write it all down.

8. Ask questions which cannot be answered by yes or no but do not make them so difficult that the student cannot understand them.
9. Try to keep the conversation from stopping but do not be afraid of a pause while he thinks.
10. Be alert for leads which can be followed, particularly those of personal adjustment.
11. Do not express values on what the pupil says; disgust, astonishment, or indignation have no place in the interview.
12. Have a positive suggestion to leave with the student or a definite date for the next interview.
13. End the interview as soon as you cease to make progress; do not let it fall to the level of inconsequential conversation.
14. Get the pupil to summarize the interview; do not let him leave with a group of ideas which do not appear related to him.[87]

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[87]Froehlich and Benson, loc. cit., pp. 81-82.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

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In the past our educational system was committed with the task of instilling students with certain facts which were considered to be essential to the well-being of the individual and the country. Such courses as Latin, Rhetoric, and Greek, along with courses in Government, were considered essential in developing "well-rounded" students.

Through the last several decades a shift in emphasis has been creeping slowly into the educational institutions. With tremendous technological developments, new stress has been placed on specialization in colleges and high schools. A practical approach to education has been gaining ground continually. Coinciding with this practical development, new emphasis has been placed on altering the curriculum to meet the needs of each individual student. To be certain, we have not traveled far along this continuum, but progress is in the wind. More and more, one sees an increasing number of schools revising their curriculums to make them more flexible for the students. This is a slow, painful process involving changes in attitudes and present state laws. Experimentations have been conducted in the advance-placement field so that capable students are able to progress

according to their individual capacities. Homogenious groupings by age, ability, and so forth, are now found in many school systems.

This tendency to stress individual differences as the basis for curriculum changes has been the subject of much study, experimentation, and argumentation by many educators and psychologists. Elaborate theories of measuring these differences have been formulated.

Statistics play an important role in today's education. Testing corporations have been founded and thrive on selling testing materials. Most larger universities have testing centers as well as trained counselors. These counselors aid students in their everyday problems and administer and interpret tests. These university testing centers began early in the century and served a real purpose for college students.

It was inevitable, therefore, that something should be done at the secondary school level to provide students with some such evaluation service and personal assistance. Today, guidance has become an accepted and needed function in the total educational system.

This was not so necessary in the past because educational objectives were quite different--they were to teach facts and courses and let the student take it from there. It was assumed that all students were capable of applying these facts to everyday problems and had the necessary

capacities to solve these problems. This sounded good but more often than not these facts had nothing to do with the everyday activities of the average student. It applied to the Jeffersonian concept of education from which it received its major impetus in this country. However, this concept is not to be found to any noticeable degree in our public schools today.

Realizing the importance of individual needs, educators turned to the specially trained guidance personnel who began to appear on the scene around the turn of the century. Their appearance was due primarily to the fact that the function of general guidance service "outgrew" the teachers; that is, guidance, as such, was "created" because administrators and teachers could go only so far in meeting special student needs. The dividing line is where the teachers can no longer adequately meet their own objectives of teaching specific subject matter. Thus, another specialized function has been included in the curriculum--organized guidance with trained counselors. Although the teachers and administrators are an integral part of guidance, the primary responsibility for the entire program lies with the counselor --full-time or part-time.

Guidance is now thought of as an important function of the total curriculum, and it is this total approach through guidance which the writer has sought to develop in this paper. To accomplish this, the writer has presented a

number of theories of education to establish a basis for the guidance program. The writer has pointed out that, included in the modern curriculum, there are such aspects as individual differences, certain basic or fundamental knowledge, such as the teaching of English, Citizenship, and the sciences, the adjustment courses under which one may include psychology and "problems" classes, the specialization areas of homemaking and industrial arts, and the allied activities of the school. All these aspects are developed as objectives in the curriculum.

The objectives of guidance are almost as broad as those of the curriculum itself. In fact, a proper guidance program should insure a well-planned, flexible, and comprehensive curriculum. The counselor's main function is thought of by many writers in the field as being the liaison between student and teacher and administrators. If student needs are met more adequately, each succeeding year must bring changes in programming, courses, and so forth. Knowing or attempting to appraise the changing needs is one responsibility of the counselors as well as the administrators. The teacher is mainly concerned with changes and needs within her special area. Another responsibility of the counselor is to the parents, to whom he should be ready to explain and clarify the needs and problems of their children. This interest in each student is an excellent method of fostering good public relations if it is needed. Parent conferences

and visitations should be arranged if they will develop a better understanding of education and child-rearing.

The main area of concern for the counselor is in testing, guidance in groups, research, and interviewing. Testing constitutes the scientific anchorhead in the appraisal or evaluation of student progress or disposition. Through testing, the counselor becomes as objective as possible in helping each student. Thus, such batteries as the Differential Aptitude Tests provide worthwhile information in the total evaluation process.

The entire testing program should be based on sound school objectives and should not be so "comprehensive" that it becomes a burden on students, teachers, and counselors. For these reasons, the counselor must be familiar with all aspects of the curriculum, student needs, and measuring devices which have been proven. It should be an objective of the counselor to develop local norms to augment and reinforce predictability. Areas which should be covered in a testing program include achievement, aptitudes for the general testing batteries, and intelligence tests for limited use. Some counselors insist that intelligence tests, such as the WISC and the Stanford-Binet, should be an integral part of the program. The writer cannot see how these individual tests can be administered to all students. In fact, do all students need them? The cost of testing is quite often too high to justify the use of some tests.

Reporting test results is a delicate matter. The writer has suggested the sten and the quarter system as perhaps the best method of telling the student how he stands. Explaining the rationale behind the system is important. The interview provides the counselor with the opportunity to meet and talk with the student, who, in turn, may discuss whatever he wishes without fearing censorship at the hand of the counselor. This opportunity to get things "off his chest" is enough reason for interviewing. In addition, the student may find help in looking for an occupation, college, or a better understanding of the process for solving all types of problems. And it is the process which the writer has sought to emphasize, not the solution. The counselor who solves the student's problem has not yet understood the aims of guidance, much less those of education. The eclectic approach appears to be the best-suited method in theory of interviewing in the comprehensive guidance program. It provides the counselor with a structure composed of those best aspects of non-directive and directive counseling without being committed to either.

The mechanics of counseling have been adequately covered in the earlier chapters. Suffice it to say that the counselor should know how to prepare and keep the cumulative record, should continually do some research through follow-ups and surveys, and should continually seek to improve his tests through such devices as sten analysis and test

construction.

Orientation of students is another important aspect of guidance, as in career and college planning. These may be covered adequately in guidance in group sessions. The counselor who has mastered the fundamentals of psychology can develop interesting studies concerned with motivation and transfer of knowledge. Such divisions certainly have a place with these groups. It seems to orient students to their new surroundings, perhaps helps them to understand themselves to a greater extent and to interchange ideas and concepts. It may also serve to help students adjust to new situations in college or in industry.

One new idea stands out as a result of the research involved in writing this paper. As has been suggested elsewhere, the writer has thought of a curriculum flexible enough to allow each student to progress at his own discretion or ability. Through proper testing it would be possible to advance-place students throughout the grades if those students so desired. Homogenious groupings by age, and so forth, within each grade would not be necessary in many cases. Fewer teachers and classrooms would be necessary, thus lessening the educational taxation burden on the public. State educational regulations would need to be altered as well as the systems in the schools. The diploma would not be a certificate of attendance for four years of academic work. It would include what the student had done--achievements would

be included, whether in academic or allied activities.

There are many shortcomings to this idea, the most important perhaps being the age factor and its relationship to adjustment. Nevertheless, the writer believes it worthy enough to warrant research and study in the field of measurement, age adjustment factors, and individual needs and motivations, as well as its application to the curriculum.

It has often been said that one idea is worth the price of any book--this one idea makes the paper worthwhile to the writer.

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